## REDUCING THE DEFICIT: SPENDING AND REVENUE OPTIONS

The Congress of the United States Congressional Budget Office

#### NOTES

Unless otherwise indicated, all years referred to in this report are fiscal years.

Dashes in tables in this report indicate amounts less than \$2.5 million.

Details in the text and tables of this report may not add to totals because of rounding.

The Balanced Budget and Emergency Deficit Control Act of 1985 is also referred to in this volume more briefly as the Balanced Budget Act.



The Congressional Budget Office (CBO) is required by section 202(f) of the Congressional Budget Act of 1974 to submit an annual report on budgetary options to the Senate and House Committees on the Budget. This year, the report is in two parts, with this report constituting Part II. Part I is entitled The Economic and Budget Outlook: Fiscal Years 1988-1992.

This report provides background information for each major spending area of the budget and for revenues, and analyzes various specific options that would reduce the deficit. The inclusion of an option in the report, or the omission of one, does not imply a recommendation by CBO.

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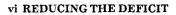
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# REDUCING THE DEFICIT

#### REDUCING THE DEFICIT: AN OVERVIEW

The Balanced Budget and Emergency Deficit Control Act of 1985 (the Balanced Budget Act) instructs the 100th Congress to adopt a budget plan for 1988 with a deficit no larger than \$108 billion. But if the policies left in place by the 99th Congress are continued by its successor, the likely deficit for 1988 will be \$169 billion, as shown in Table I-1 on the next page.

Unless the maximum deficit targets prescribed in the Balanced Budget Act are amended, the budget resolution for 1988, which is due to be adopted by April 15, 1987, must close a gap of \$61 billion. 1/ That amount corresponds to a 5.7 percent cut in 1988 outlays or a 6.8 percent rise in revenues.

If all of the excess 1988 deficit is eliminated on the spending side of the budget, some programs must be hit much harder than the 5.7 percent mentioned above. This imbalance occurs because still other programs are constitutionally shielded from any reduction at all--interest on the debt, contract obligations, judgments against the United States, and so forth. Technical factors and political consensus insulate yet other programs as well. For example, the Balanced Budget Act protects so many programs-mainly entitlements--from contributing significantly to deficit reduction that CBO estimates the act's rules would force a 14 percent reduction in 1988 budget resources for national defense and a 20 percent cut in the unprotected nondefense programs. 2/

As for the alternative of reaching the 1988 deficit target entirely by raising taxes, a 6.8 percent rise would mean total federal government reve-

<sup>1.</sup> The Balanced Budget Act permits the target to be exceeded by \$10 billion before spending reduction procedures are set in motion, but that leeway is not granted in preparing the budget resolution. It must aim for a deficit of no more than \$108 billion.

<sup>2.</sup> CBO and the Office of Management and Budget (OMB) will make a joint estimate for 1988 in August 1987. It will take account of enacted legislation and other developments affecting the budget outlook and will average the estimates of the two agencies. The August report will almost certainly differ from CBO's current estimate of 1988 spending reductions called for by the Balanced Budget Act.



nues that year equal to 20.5 percent of projected Gross National Product (GNP), a higher percentage than any other year since World War II. Such a rise is the equivalent of a 16 percent personal income surtax.

#### THE CONTEXT FOR MAKING BUDGET DECISIONS

Table I-2 shows actual outlays by major category for 1985 and 1986, together with the CBO projection of those outlays for the following six years. (The major categories are described in the accompanying box.) The most important message to be found in the table is that federal spending, which had been rising as a proportion of GNP, is expected to decline if current policies are continued. This reversal occurs largely because defense appropriations, having had high real growth in recent years, are now assumed to stay constant in real terms, and because projected interest rates are substantially lower than those experienced earlier in the 1980s. To the extent that the 100th Congress reaches budget targets with less spending than that shown in the baseline, the federal share of GNP will be correspondingly less.

TABLE I-1. CBO BASELINE DEFICIT PROJECTIONS (By fiscal year)

	Actual	Base	Projections					
	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	
Outlays	990	1,008	1,069	1,124	1,184	1,247	1,305	
Revenues Deficit a/	$\frac{-769}{221}$	-834 174	<u>-900</u> 169	•	$\frac{-1,050}{134}$	-1,138 109	•	
Target Deficit b/ Excess Deficit	$\frac{-172}{49}$	<u>-144</u> 30	-108 61	-72 90	-36 98	-0 109	n.a.	
Dacess Deficit	49	30	91	90	90	109	n.a.	

SOURCE: Congressional Budget Office.

NOTE: n.a. = not applicable.

- a. For the economic assumptions used in deriving the projected deficits, see CBO, The Economic and Budget Outlook: Fiscal Years 1988-1992 (January 1987).
- b. The maximums as prescribed in the Balanced Budget Act.

The table also discloses the severity of long-range spending cuts that must be made if the Balanced Budget Act's 1991 zero deficit target is to be met with no changes in baseline revenues. Under those circumstances, outlay growth from 1987 to 1991 can be only \$130 billion instead of the \$239 billion growth that would follow from adhering to current policy. Unless laws are changed, entitlements alone--mainly Social Security and Medicare--are projected to grow by \$136 billion from 1987 through 1991, implying negative growth in nominal dollars for defense, interest, and everything else.

On the other hand, if the 1991 zero deficit target is met solely by raising taxes, the probable required share of GNP for federal revenues would

TABLE I-2. BASELINE OUTLAY PROJECTIONS (By fiscal year)

Actual				Projections				
Major Category	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992
		In Bill	lions of E	Oollars				
National Defense Entitlements and Other	253	273	280	290	303	317	332	346
Mandatory Spending Nondefense Discretionar	<b>44</b> 0	456	481	512	544	578	617	660
Spending	172	171	166	185	193	204	213	220
Net Interest	129	136	135	141	147	152	155	154
Offsetting Receipts	<u>-48</u>	<u>-47</u>	<u>-53</u>	<u>-59</u>	<u>-63</u>	<u>-66</u>	<u>-70</u>	<u>-75</u>
Total	946	990	1,008	1,069	1,124	1,184	1,247	1,305
		As a F	ercent o	<b>f GNP</b>				
National Defense Entitlements and Other	6.4	6.6	6.4	6.2	6.0	5.9	5.7	5.6
Mandatory Spending Nondefense Discretionar	11.2	11.0	10.9	10.9	10.8	10.7	10.7	10.7
Spending	4.4	4.1	3.8	3.9	3.8	3.8	3.7	3.6
Net Interest	3.3	3.3	3.1	3.0	2.9		2.7	2.5
Offsetting Receipts	-1.2	-1.1	-1.2	1.3	-1.2	-1.2	-1.2	-1.2
Total	$\overline{24.0}$	23.8	22.9	22.8	22.3	21.9	21.5	21.1

SOURCE: Congressional Budget Office.

NOTE: Includes Social Security outlays, which are off-budget.

#### FEDERAL SPENDING CATEGORIES

National Defense. Outlays for military and civilian personnel, operating costs, weapons procurement, research and development, and military construction.

Entitlements and Other Mandatory Spending. Programs in which spending is governed by a law making all who meet their requirements eligible to receive payments. Subcategories are:

Health Care. Includes outlays for Medicare and for the federal share of Medicaid expenditures.

Social Security and Other Retirement and Disability Programs. Includes old-age, survivors, and disability benefits under Social Security, as well as other federally financed retirement and disability programs, including federal civil service and military retirement and disability programs, veterans' pensions and compensation, and Supplemental Security Income.

Other Entitlements and Mandatory Spending. Entitlements and other mandatory spending not included above. Major examples are: non-means-tested or partially means-tested benefits such as Unemployment Insurance and child nutrition; means-tested benefits such as Food Stamps and Aid to Families with Dependent Children; certain state and local grants such as the Social Services Block Grant; and agricultural price supports.

Nondefense Discretionary Spending. All nondefense programs for which spending is determined by annual appropriations, or by loan or obligation limits imposed in appropriation acts. The basic governmental legislative, judicial, and tax-collecting functions are included. A large part of this category represents the salary and expense accounts that finance the ongoing operations of the civilian agencies of government. Most grants to state and local governments (other than for benefit payments) and nondefense research and development are also in this category.

Net Interest. Interest payments on the federal debt, less interest received by trust funds and other interest payments to the federal government.

Offsetting Receipts. Proprietary receipts from the public and the employer share of employee retirement. Other receipts (for example, foreign military sales, trust fund receipts, and payments to trust funds) appropriately netted against outlays are included in the relevant categories above.

exceed 21 percent, higher than the peak reached in World War II. The exact percentage needed would depend, of course, on when taxes were raised.

The figures in Table I-2 also suggest that current policy means the absence of any dramatic shifts over the next five years among the major categories, but the aggregates conceal a large program that has replaced interest on the national debt as the one whose federal costs are growing most rapidly: farm income stabilization. In the five years ending with 1982, annual outlays for that purpose averaged about \$10.3 billion. In the next five years, the annual average grew to \$22.9 billion, and CBO now projects the average for the 1988-1992 period will be \$24.5 billion. For this reason, Section II includes a special discussion of the farm stabilization program.

#### Sale of Assets

Although the sale of assets by the government reduces the deficit under current accounting conventions, this report does not include any options that have the primary purpose of lowering the deficit with sale proceeds. The omission is not because such sales are always inappropriate; indeed, the sale of surplus federal property is a common and thoroughly appropriate activity. Moreover, the sale of newly created federal assets that are financial instruments--like loans to students or small business firms--would provide valuable market signals about their true value to the government and the real cost of the subsidy currently being conveyed to the borrower. (Sales of loans made in prior years have no particular use as a measuring rod since the subsidy has long since been granted.)

Most such sales do nothing, however, to ameliorate the long-term deficit. They produce some welcome cash in the sale year, but they do not make a contribution to narrowing a chronic gap between spending and revenue. The asset sale may be attractive in the short term, but only at the price of giving up future revenues that the asset would have generated for the government. In short, current deficit relief by this means may well lead to a still more vexing deficit problem later on.

Another point about asset sales is that they squeeze credit markets in almost the same fashion as borrowing by the government. The amount paid for the asset is no more available for private investment than is a like amount loaned to the Treasury. Thus, it is more appropriate to debate asset sales under such rubrics as privatization, efficiency, and management reform than in the context of long-term deficit options.

In many cases, the debate may lead to a conclusion in favor of a sale. But there are strong arguments against counting the proceeds toward reducing the deficit; instead, they might well be counted as a means of financing the deficit, just as the sale of Treasury bonds is counted. This treatment would eliminate the distortions created by the current accounting of sale proceeds. 3/

#### USES OF THIS VOLUME

This report lists 97 options that the Congress may wish to consider as it grapples with the deficit problem; 77 involve spending cuts and 20 would add to revenues. For each option, there is a short description of the arguments for and against its enactment, together with the estimated savings or revenue gains for each of the years 1988 through 1992. 4/

The Congressional Budget Office does not make policy recommendations except in the narrow area of budget process, so the appearance of an item among the listed options cannot be taken as a CBO endorsement of its enactment. Similarly, the absence of an item should not be construed as CBO opposition to its passage. The list is simply a nonexhaustive compilation of measures already in the public domain, so to speak. While consideration of any one of them is virtually certain to cause controversy, none is intended to be so extreme as to be implausible.

Almost all of the options in this report have been considered by past Congresses and, by definition, have failed to be enacted. But something has to give if the 100th Congress is to meet the Balanced Budget Act's targets, so the list includes items known to be unpopular, or previously voted down in both Houses.

Section II of this report is in six parts, each one with a brief subject introduction followed by the options relevant to the part: defense, entitlements, farm price supports, the federal civilian work force, nondefense discretionary programs, and revenues.

<sup>3.</sup> For more discussion of this issue, see CBO, An Analysis of the President's Budgetary Proposals for Fiscal Year 1988 (forthcoming).

The savings and gains are calculated against the CBO baseline, except for the defense options, where the reductions are from the program in the President's 1988 budget recommendations.